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ABSTRACT

This four-lesson unit, designed for use with high school students, examines economic development in Africa. Lesson 1, "What Is Development?" has students investigating terms such as development, third world, North, and South. In lesson 2, "Resources and Culture," students learn that people define resources based on their own cultural perspectives. In lesson 3, "Mineral and Energy Resources," students learn about interdependence within the context of development. Students examine Zambia's economy and see the factors involved in managing mineral resources within the world economy. In lesson 4, "Resources for Self-Reliance," students examine more fully the paradox that much of Africa faces: it possesses enormous mineral resources and great agricultural potential, while at the same time has some of the world's lowest standards of living. Students learn about the need for African initiated resolutions and the difficulty of realizing them. A 20-item bibliography of resources concerning Africa and development issues is included. (DB)

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In 1979, SPICE joined with two other international resource organizations–The World Affairs Council of Northern California and Global Educators–to form the Bay Area Global Education Program (BAGEP), an international studies resource consortium serving K-12 schools and districts in the San Francisco area. In 1986, Stanford University, in cooperation with the World Affairs Council and Global Educators, was selected to manage the California International Studies Project (CISP), a legislatively-based (AB 2543) statewide network of international resource centers for which BAGEP serves as a model. SPICE is the curriculum development and materials resource arm of CISP.

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SPICE is sponsored by the Institute for International Studies and the School of Education at Stanford University.

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WHAT IS A RESOURCE?

Stanford Program
on
International and Cross-Cultural Education

The Africa Project

Stanford University

Developed by Laurence Becker
Coordinator, The Africa Project

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INTRODUCTION

One of the general observations that visitors from another planet might make about humans is that they do not distribute their good things evenly. Some people, the visitors would find after some study and comparisons, are rich in happiness; while others incessantly complain and worry, even about visitors from outer space. Some are strong, full of good health; while others suffer from weakness due to malnutrition and disease. Some have a multitude of goods available to them for amusement, grooming, transportation and other activities; while others live with fewer goods.

Having observed this phenomenon, our visitors would immediately wonder how this state of affairs came about. They would wonder, too, what sorts of relationships among humans exist to maintain such an uneven distribution of wealth, and what sorts of attempts are being made to change them.

This unit places students in the inquisitive position of these visitors. But the students, unlike the visitors, are residents of the earth, and so seek to understand something of which they are a part. The students should not forget that their way of thinking is not shared by all, yet they do have much in common with people everywhere. Students are encouraged to link together phenomena that they observe. A unit on development in Africa quite naturally can demonstrate only one segment of Africa's integral role in world history and a world economy.

What Is A Resource? fits in a variety of curriculum settings. For example, in California, the 1985 Model Curriculum Standards for History-Social Science, Grades 9-12 calls for teaching "the problem of underdevelopment in the Southern Hemisphere, and causes for this pattern" in world history, culture, and geography courses; and for economics courses it calls for teaching about "Development of Third World nations" and "International Trade." This unit should be used as a springboard to teach, for example, about North-South issues, development studies, and basic economics concepts.

In What Is A Resource?, students will investigate the term "development." What does it mean to different people? What do related words mean, such as "underdevelopment," "third world," "North" and "South," and "developed?" This preliminary introduction to new terms and inquiry into their meanings and usage teaches the critical thinking skills required for interpreting multiple perspectives.

In the study of development, students need to think about the assumptions which are implicit in the ways words are used. Resources must be assessed in any development program: What is a

resource? Where does something become a resource? How and why do different people define resources differently?

Resources are the subject of much discussion today; we hear of "strategic resources" in politics, "renewable resources" in ecology, and "human resources" in economics and labor management. Students should learn to look around and recognize which resources they use, where they come from, and how they have been transformed. In Lesson #3, they will learn about interdependence within the context of development. In the case of Africa and the rest of the third world, some kinds of interdependence have not always benefited Africans. With a brief look at Zambia's economy, students will see the factors involved in managing mineral resources within the world economy. Africa presents a paradox: it possesses enormous mineral resources and great agricultural potential, while at the same time having some of the world's lowest standards of living.

In Lesson #4, students are presented with various hypothetical scenarios of this African paradox. The students learn about the need for African-initiated resolutions and the difficulty of realizing them. Upon completion of Lesson #4, students are encouraged to launch a case study. These in-depth studies can focus on countries, cities, products, or a variety of projects, such as health care, nutrition, cattle breeding, clear water, literacy, housing, and road construction. Students can investigate organizations involved in development: at the international level, for example, Red Cross, World Bank, United Nations Development Program (UNDP); at the continental level, Organization of African Unity (OAU), African Development Bank, Africare; and at the regional level, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC).

The investigation of development should be as broad and balanced as possible, like the initial observations of our visitors from outer space. However, we must recognize from the outset that the students already have: 1) attitudes toward poverty, and 2) images of Africa. As teachers, we must identify these attitudes and images, so that the students will be able to broaden their views and build their knowledge of African history, geography, and economics. Finally, we must contribute to our students' positive learning experience by making the study of Africa as real as possible, including direct contact with Africans as either classroom visitors or pen pals, and reading the literature of African writers. At the end of the bibliography, we have included an address list of African Studies Centers at universities in the United States. Most of these have an outreach office that can help teachers select materials for teaching about Africa and can introduce you to guest speakers from African countries.

Lesson 1

WHAT IS DEVELOPMENT?

Objectives:

- To define terms related to development.
- To begin to analyze the components of development.
- To produce a working definition of "development."

Procedure:

1. Divide the students into small groups. On the chalkboard write the duties of each group member: a) Secretary--records discussion, b) Initiator--keeps discussion moving, assures that all participate, keeps discussion on the topic, c) Speaker--reports findings to class as a whole.

2. a) Ask each group to define development. Each student group is to think of as many aspects of development as it can. b) Next, students should consider local, state, and national development; e.g., how has your state developed and what is contributing to its development now?

3. Call on the speakers of several groups to present their definitions and local, state, and national examples. On the chalkboard (or butcher paper to use the students' initial thoughts for later comparison), summarize the points made: e.g., about trade, government, factories, schools, law. All students should write these down. Analyze the responses in an open discussion to see where the definitions and examples match and where they might be contradictory.

4. Offer a general definition of development: it is a process of improving the quality of life. The means for doing this are disputed and defined in different ways because values, beliefs, and the material resources available are different in different places and among different people. Ask the students what they think a good quality of life would include (anticipate popular culture responses, but bring their points around to basics like health, justice, security, literacy, friendship).

5. Ask the students whether they know of any countries that they might consider developed. Students will probably think of countries like the United States, Canada, Soviet Union, France, Britain, and Japan. Check to see if some aspects of their definitions might contradict these examples. Ask the students if they think all the people in these countries have a good quality of life?

6. Many countries are not considered "developed." Some of the terms used to refer to these countries are:

third world	lesser developed	non-industrial
underdeveloped	South	developing
non-Western	newly industrialized	

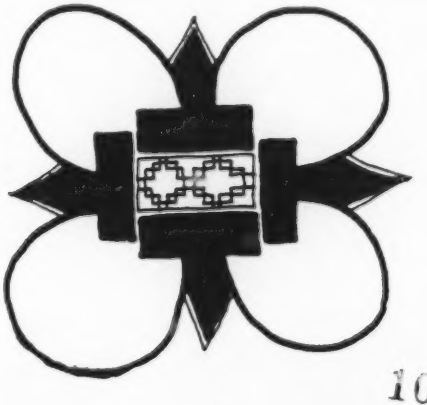
Students should write down these terms. Give brief definitions of each using the sheet provided (Handout 1A) and point out how they are similar and how they may differ in their connotations.

7. For further study and/or evaluation:

a. Students compare and contrast the views of Kwame Nkrumah, Janet Abu-Lughod, Walter Rodney, A.W. Clausen, Hazel Henderson, and Edem Kodjo (Handout 1B).

- on trade
- on capitalism, socialism, industrialism
- on the terms they use to describe world regions

b. Using an atlas, world map, almanac, and an outline world map, students map the "underdeveloped world" or "third world" (choose a designation). Are there any countries that are hard to classify? What are the boundaries of the developed and developing worlds?



HANDOUT 1A

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Primarily the countries of Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America. The term implies that change is taking place to lead to greater industrialization and a higher standard of living. Like EMERGING COUNTRIES, this term has a positive tone.

LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES (LDC)

Used by the business community in general to designate those countries with lower gross national products (GNP) than countries with high GNPs. Those countries with high GNPs are MORE DEVELOPED COUNTRIES (MDC).

NEWLY INDUSTRIALIZED

Countries that have built industrial economies since the late 1950's, notably Taiwan, Republic of Korea, Singapore, and some would say Brazil. Most newly industrialized countries have some characteristics of underdeveloped countries.

NON-INDUSTRIAL COUNTRIES

Those countries that have relatively little industrial development, meaning that they have few industries that produce goods like steel, paper, cars, or radios. They tend to have very low GNPs and are largely dependent upon other countries for economic and technological development.

NON-WESTERN

Term used today for countries where the way of life of western Europe and people of western European descent are not dominant. In general, western countries share Judeo-Christian beliefs, capitalist economies, and some form of competitive electoral government, e.g., United Kingdom, France, United States.

SOUTH

Underdeveloped countries tend to be south of developed countries. "The South" as a term divides the world between the developed NORTH--Japan, Canada, Soviet Union, Europe, United States--and the lesser developed SOUTH--the rest of the world.

THIRD WORLD

Refers to most of the nations in Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America. Originally it referred to the newly independent countries of Asia and Africa that were neutral in the Cold War. The THIRD WORLD is, in this sense,

distinct from the capitalist FIRST WORLD and the communist SECOND WORLD. A term similar to the original meaning of Third World is NON-ALIGNED.

UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Underdeveloped countries have some or all of the following characteristics: large proportions of the population in agriculture, low per capita GNP, economic and technological dependencies on other countries, and high population growth rates. Most are former colonies. The term implies that history can explain current inequalities between countries.

HANDOUT 1B

When the non-aligned nations talk of disarmament they are not merely concerned with the destructiveness and madness of the armaments race. They are thinking of the vast possibilities now denied the people of the less-developed areas for increased standards of living, the development of agriculture and industry, the planning of cities, the abolition of illiteracy and want, and the curing of disease. It has been estimated that one-tenth of the expenditure involved in armaments would be enough to raise the whole of the less-developed world to the level of a self-sustaining economy. The influence of the uncommitted nations must be exerted to the full to restore a proper sense of values to the world.

Kwame Nkrumah, leader in African

The Third World has emerged from the shadowy position it occupied in the nineteenth century, when it was either the domain of or irrelevant to the western world of advanced capitalist development, and has become a force which increasingly challenges the balance of power "worked out" in the Northern hemisphere between the First (capitalist) and Second (socialist) Worlds...

Gone forever are the days when the entire "nonwestern" world was viewed simplistically as an undifferentiated mass of societies which had "not yet learned to be western." In those halcyon days of western hegemony, the standard against which other societies were judged (and so often found wanting!) was the First World, that transatlantic core of Europe, the United States and Canada which rose to world power after the sixteenth century and which, by the nineteenth, controlled its destiny. The first World War--its very name an appropriate ethnocentric symbol since it involved only a small portion of the world--marked the beginning of the end. By the 1930s it was clear that universal involvement was underway, a fact confirmed in the 1940s by a war which did, indeed, involve most of the world. It was in the wake of that conflict that the term "nonwestern" was born. Under this new label, western scholars began to address the rest of mankind as a complex and changing agglomeration of newly independent nations who were to be helped across the difficult threshold of modernization.

Janet Abu-Lughod, from,
<u>Third World Urbanization</u>
1977, Maaroufa Press,
Chicago, page 1.

Most of the people who write about underdevelopment and who are read in the continents of Africa, Asia, and Latin America are spokesmen for the capitalist or bourgeois world. They seek to justify capitalist exploitation both inside and outside their own countries. One of the things which they do to confuse the issue is to place all underdeveloped countries in one camp and all the developed countries in another camp irrespective of different social systems; so that the terms capitalist and socialist never enter the discussion. Instead, one is faced with a simple division between the industrialized nations and those that are not industrialized. It is true that both the United States and the Soviet Union are industrialized and it is true that when one looks at the statistics, countries such as France, Czechoslovakia, and Romania are much closer together than any one of them is to an African country. But it is absolutely necessary to determine whether the standard of living in a given industrialized country is a product of its own internal resources or whether it stems from exploiting other countries. The United States has a small proportion of the world's population and exploitable natural wealth, but it enjoys a huge percentage of the wealth which comes from exploiting the labor and natural resources of the whole world.

Walter Rodney, from <u>How Europe Underdeveloped Africa</u>, 1972, Howard Univ. Press, pp. 23-24.

...Free and expanding trade is crucial to the developing countries. Trade has, in fact, contributed more to Third World development than any other external factor.

International trade helped to stimulate the exceptionally rapid economic growth which many of the middle-income countries, both exporters and importers of oil, enjoyed during the Seventies. Between 1970 and 1980, the export earnings of the developing countries increased 140 percent in real terms, and 93 percent of this went to some 60 middle-income developing countries.

...Some of the newly industrializing countries have already become star performers, however, and the rest of the world might be able to learn from their approach. These countries adopted trade-oriented policies, not as concessions to any other country, but because they recognized the benefits that they <u>themselves</u> would gain. Similarly, the World Bank encourages all its

developing member nations to adopt liberal trade policies, even under adverse world conditions, because experience shows that trade contributes to their own development. Liberal trade also makes sense for the advanced industrial nations, not as a concession to anybody, but because the benefits to themselves far exceed the costs.

A.W. Clausen, President
The World Bank (from a speech at an international meeting on trade in Geneva, Switzerland, 24 November 1982)

An emerging view in the third world sees the growing instabilities in nations of the Northern Hemisphere - their monetary stress, inflation, unemployment, military escalations, and confrontations over depleting resources - all as crises of industrialism itself. No longer is the development debate limited to the terms of the 19th century, as capitalism versus socialism. Both are seen now as differing styles of industrialism and its single-minded goal of maximizing production and economic growth (whether defined in dollars, rubles, yen, or francs), regardless of social and environmental disruption and erosion of traditional values.

This lesson is now clear, because the commonality of interests of resource-dependent industrial nations is demonstrated at many international meetings. For instance, at the 1978 U.N. Conference on Science and Technology for Development in Vienna this mutuality was already visible. There, in spite of speeches supporting more equitable sharing of technological resources with less-developed countries, the U.S. and the Soviet Union <u>voted together</u> with other East and West European nations - as an industrial bloc - to thwart these goals.

Hazel Henderson, futurist, author, from "The Last Shall Be First, 1980s Style," <u>Christian Science Monitor</u>, 16 May 1980.

We need to deal with problems like unemployment, inflation, and rates of interest in common. Then we can make a step towards what I call the world economic space. This, however, is not the direction we are taking now. Our economic problems are so interrelated today that promotion and growth in the Nortn now is based on the development in the South. Instead of trying to put the problem in terms of a confrontation between the North and South in a dialogue which never ends, it is better to consider the world as one economic space which comprises some parts to be developed and some parts already developed.

The problems in the North can only be solved if there is promotion and development in the South. To give a new breath to the northern economy, it is necessary to develop the South.

Edem Kodjo, Secretary-General
Organization of African Unity
(from an interview with Trans-
Africa's Randall Robinson in
1982)

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Lesson 2

RESOURCES AND CULTURE

Objective:

- To learn that resources for development are dependent upon cultural interpretation.

Materials:

Objects that are indigenous to the region of your school. In the San Francisco Bay Area, for example, willow branches, oak acorns, sea shells, and tule reeds would provide a small collection of objects from a variety of ecological areas.

Procedure:

PRE-CLASS

1. Students read introduction (Handout 2A)

2. As preparation for this lesson, students obtain the names and descriptions of plants, animals and minerals found around their school. This information can come from a variety of sources: library, science teacher, public park, or museum. Any information on the natural surroundings of the school will be useful.

CLASS

1. Have 4 or 5 sample items displayed and available for the class to view. Students describe the items and hypothesize how they might be used as resources (Handout 2B for sample).

2. Record students' items under three headings: plants, animals, minerals.

3. Divide the class into small groups to discuss the following questions:

   a) Are any of the items listed used today? If so, how are they used?

   b) Think of as many potential uses for each item as you can. For example, a branch of an oak tree: fuel--burning for home heat, for good preparation, etc.; construction--for shelter, furniture, panels, etc.

4. Each group reports on its discussion.

5. Use the following questions for a class discussion:

   a) Is the item used today?

   b) Was the item used by the Native Americans who once lived in the region?

   c) Today, where do the tools we use, food we eat, transportation we ride, etc. come from?

   d) How do you explain the phenomenon that the same object can be perceived (used) by one group in a region as a food staple and another group in the same region as merely an ornament or a nuisance?

6. Distribute "We See Only What We Know" (Handout 2C). Students read and discuss in class. The students complete the drawing and writing project during the week.

7. Finally, students speculate on the significance of the relationship between resources and culture in the study of development in an African setting. For example, in a given country, sub-groups will depend on different resources: village farmers who raise most of the food they consume will control most of their own food resources; city dwellers who buy food in a market will have to buy their own food.

Optional: for further study, have students select three common items and trace their origin. For example, find the origin of a pencil's graphite, wood and paint.

HANDOUT 2A

RESOURCES AS A PRODUCT OF CULTURE

Resources are what we have available to do something. For example, they may be resources for building, thinking, or planning. If we want to buy a bicycle, we will need to consider wnat resources are available to us. Do we have enough money (a financial resource)? If we want to write a book, we not only need financial resources to purchase paper and hire a typist, but more important we will need the ability to write. That ability, also, is a resource. Nations need and have resources too. Some nations have more than others. People of different cultures, ways of life, have different ways of looking at the world. Therefore, they perceive different ways of doing things. They define resources from their own cultural perspective.

We choose what we use as tools. Trees, for example, do not exist only to be processed into paper. People learned to make paper from wood pulp. People have made trees into all kinds of things: furniture, food, fuel, clothing, transportation, and sacred objects. If we were to travel around the world, we would see that in different cultures these things look different and are treated in a different manner. Not only could the trees have been different, but more importantly the way people saw the trees.

As a group of people, our society has developed certain standard ways of doing things. To do these things, like eat breakfast, we need many resources: certain plants for food as well as minerals to make the machines which harvest the crops, schools to train the people who produce the crops, fertilizers, and pesticides, and so on. All of the resources that are used are linked to the economy, political process, and belief system which constitute a culture.

A morning meal in rural northern Nigeria uses different resources. The plants for the foods include a common grain called millet. The yield of the millet plant results from information about planting times, soil preparation, and harvesting. This knowledge has been passed on from generation to generation. Family labor produces the crop, stores it, and prepares it for eating. The resources involved can be understood through an explanation of northern Nigerian culture.

The resources used for living become a part of common knowledge. This "common knowledge" is also a part of our culture. It is the expected way of doing things. Houses in most American suburbs have grass lawns. They are an expected feature of the suburban landscape, even when they must be maintained at a great expense. Lawns are an important part of American suburban culture. In the 1970s, during a water shortage in California,

some government officials and environmentalists promoted plants that required less water as a substitute for the grasses grown on most lawns. People resisted the change, not because they wanted to waste water but because of the cultural importance of a lawn. Other common resources have alternatives as determined by culture or geography: carob for chocolate, plastic for paper (bags), or synthetic rubber for natural rubber (tires), and cement for brick or marble (monumental buildings). Which is valued more highly in our culture: leather or plastic?

Resources, like the cultures that create them, change. What is a resource today may not be one tomorrow. Petroleum is an example. Has it always been the important resource it is today? Will it continue to be an important resource when new sources of energy are discovered or when the world oil reserves run dry?

Rock shale is an example of an ore that nearly became a vital resource. When the price of oil was climbing, oil companies began to consider producing oil from shale. The transformation process, however, was very expensive. If the price of oil became <u>more</u> expensive, shale might have become a viable resource. Sea water contains many chemicals that could be used by industries today. With only a few exceptions, like salt, it is too expensive to extract and make these chemicals available to industries. New inventions or technologies may change this.

In our culture, we hear of strategic resources, renewable resources and non-renewable resources, educational resource centers, resource recovery, human resources, resource wars, resources for survival, and many other resources. Most of these terms would have had different meanings, or even no meaning at all, to Americans in our culture in the 1920s. Our culture is changing rapidly, yet natural materials remain the same.

Other societies today define the terms listed above in ways that correspond to their cultures. The cobalt of Zaire that is a strategic resource to the United States government (because it can be used to harden the steel on some weapons) is a resource for the government of Zaire, because it earns foreign exchange and can be sold to the U.S. Cobalt, however, is not considered a resource by most Zairians, who will not benefit from the foreign income or fighter jets. An object is perceived as a resource within a culture when it has a declared purpose. A desert in Chad may be one culture's pastureland and living area, yet another culture's landing strip for airplanes.

The significance of multiple perspectives on resources is becoming more important as cultures continue to interact. People from different cultures will bring with them different perspectives, and potential conflict may result. Understanding this potential is one of the initial steps towards averting future world conflicts.

HANDOUT 2B

SAMPLE DISPLAY

For each item on display, students respond to the following two questions. Appropriate answers are provided below.

1. What is this? Be as descriptive and precise as possible. If you can tell, is it a plant? What part of the plant?

2. List all the ways in which you could imagine people using this item. If the item would have to be carved or heated or somehow transformed to make it useful, describe the process.

Sample Responses

A. 1) Water
Stream, lake

2) Drinking, moistening clay for other use, dyes, habitat for fish, other plants and animals

B. 1) Soil

2) If suitable for plant growth: plants for food, shelter, clothing, either cultivated or gathered.
If clay: clay pots for containers, adobe bricks for shelter.

C. 1) Willow branches (*Salix*)
Branches of a streamside plant.

2) Decoration, display
Baskets: the structure of a grass basket
Arrow: straightened and smoothed

D. 1) Acorns (*Quercus*)
Seeds of an oak tree

2) Food, decoration

HANDOUT 2C

WE SEE ONLY WHAT WE KNOW

Imagine that you and two persons whom you have not previously met are sent to a small island--about the size of a city block--as part of an experiment in survival.

Each of you comes from a different part of the world. You have different ways of seeing the world around you, because you have grown up speaking different languages, eating different foods, playing different games, trusting different people, and believing different explanations for why things are the way they are. You have different hopes and you react to situations differently.

These are some of your many cultural differences, yet because you are all human, you share many things in common. Without any further description of the three of you, you must find a way to live.

Project:

7th-8th Grade Level: Illustrate and write a paragraph to describe:

A) The island--as a map projection, showing all the island's features.

B) You and your two neighbors

C) A series of pictures that depict your lifestyle. Important: You must show how you use the available resources, and how the three of you cooperate. Remember, the island is small, so you will need to find some way to work together. What are your available resources and how will you use them? Be sure that the resources on your island are "compatible," i.e., you can't have bananas in a wheat-producing region.

9th-12th Grade Level: By drawing picture and writing, communicate with the other two persons to decide how you will use your collective knowledge. Include:

A) How you communicate with the other two people.

B) How you feel about the attitudes and knowledge of the others. (e.g., Do you feel your ideas are superior? Do you come to decisions in a way that is fair?)

How you want to use the resources that are available to you and how the ideas of the other two are different.

How do <u>you</u> define a resource and how do the others?

What conflicts have evolved over different perspectives, e.g., definition of resources.

LESSON 3

MINERAL AND ENERGY RESOURCES

Introduction:

Broadly speaking, minerals are non-living substances obtained from the ground for human use, e.g., salt, cola, oil, stone. Ever since the Stone Age, humans have found mineral resources important. Energy resources include some mineral resources, oil and uranium, but also others. Where rivers flow through narrow gorges, dams can be built and hydroelectricity produced. Less easy to measure are wind and solar energy resources. As you can imagine, the access a nation has to mineral and energy resources will affect its development.

Objectives:

- To define mineral and energy resources.
- To recognize that the African continent is rich in mineral and energy resources, but that those resources are not evenly distributed and are not fully utilized.

Materials:

Map showing the distribution of mineral and energy resources in Africa (Handout 3A), map showing the names of African countries, case study reading (Handout 3B), suggested responses sheet (Handout 3C).

Procedure:

1. As a class, define <u>mineral</u> and <u>energy</u>.
2. On the Mineral Resources of Africa map (Handout 3A)--or a transparency of the map--demonstrate the symboling system so that all students learn, e.g., that Au means gold in the region where the symbol appears.
3. Students list a minimum of five nations from different parts of the continent and their mineral and/or energy resources.

Example:	<u>Nation</u>	<u>Mineral/Energy Resources</u>
1.	Nigeria	petroleum
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

4. As a result of reading the map, discuss the following:

   A) What nations are especially well-endowed?

   B) How can these resources be used?

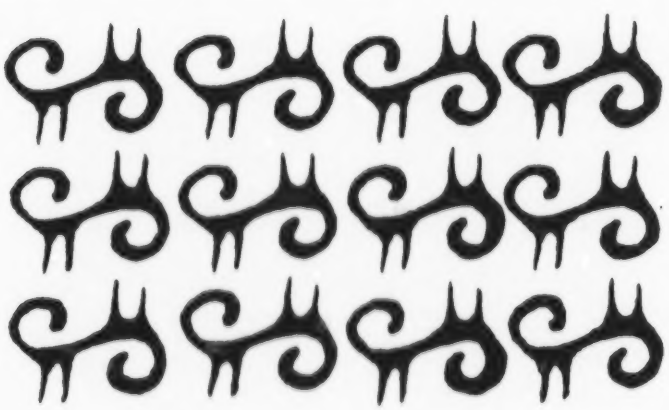
   C) What is necessary for their use, i.e., industries, transportation, management, markets, etc.?

   D) Would you hypothesize that these nations are relatively rich or poor?

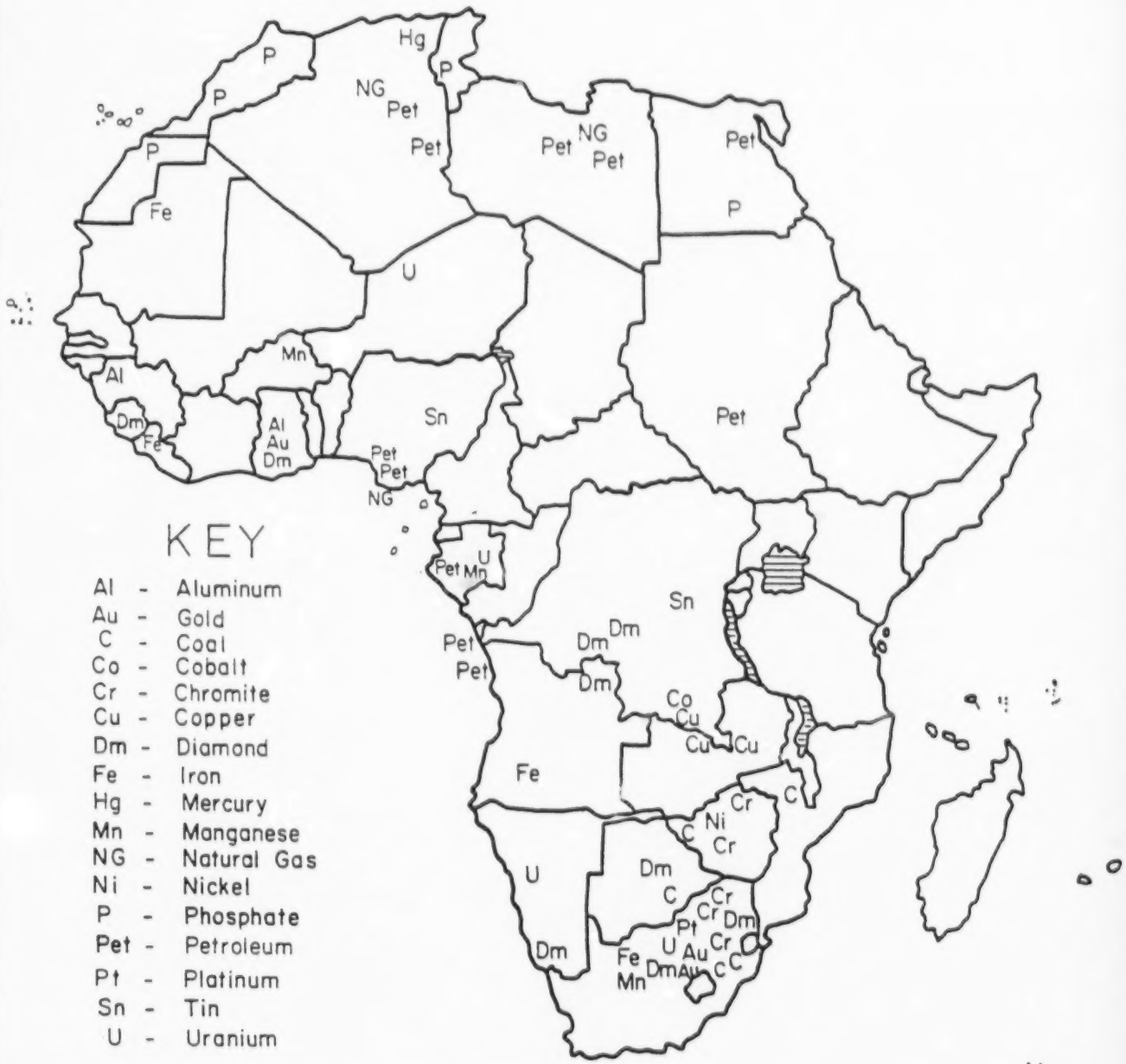
   E) What factors might influence the price of mineral resources?

Note: This map does not show all known mineral and energy resources in Africa. No country is completely without resources. For a more detailed account, see an encyclopedia.

5. As a case study of one African country, have students read "Zambia Struggles With the Plight of Have-Not Nations" (Handout 3B). Complete the study questions. Some suggested responses are on Handout 3C.



MINERAL RESOURCES OF AFRICA



KEY

Al	-	Aluminum
Au	-	Gold
C	-	Coal
Co	-	Cobalt
Cr	-	Chromite
Cu	-	Copper
Dm	-	Diamond
Fe	-	Iron
Hg	-	Mercury
Mn	-	Manganese
NG	-	Natural Gas
Ni	-	Nickel
P	-	Phosphate
Pet	-	Petroleum
Pt	-	Platinum
Sn	-	Tin
U	-	Uranium

26

WILLIAM AUSTIN, CARTOGRAPHER

ZAMBIA STRUGGLES WITH THE PLIGHT OF HAVE-NOT NATIONS

Zambia, its economy struggling with high petroleum prices and low prices for metals, has national problems which are common in the third world. Economic instability poses serious problems for Zambians and Africans generally.

As the world's third-ranking copper producer, Zambia prospered, particularly in the 1950s and after independence in 1964. But in real terms, a ton of copper fetches less in the 1980s than at any time since about 1958.

Meanwhile, the costs of producing a ton of copper in Zambia have risen. Each ton Zambia exports is sold at a loss. Yet the nation has no other significant source of foreign exchange and has thus continued to export refined copper year after loss-making year.

Based on the good years of copper, Zambia expanded an already highly geared and comparatively modern economy in accord with healthy returns from copper sales. The government built roads and schools, necessary after colonial neglect; began spending large sums on military hardware; and created a number of state-owned industries, financial institutions, and service operations. The bureaucracy naturally grew.

Led by President Kenneth Kaunda, Zambia emerged from the 1960s as an important and respected middle-rank African power. While Africans were fighting for a voice in white-ruled Rhodesia (1965-79), Zambia was on the front line between white and black in Africa and suffered economic and military blows as a result of its support for the rebellions against Rhodesia and South African control of Namibia.

When Rhodesia became Zimbabwe in 1980, Zambia's problems were expected to end. Instead, they became worse. Copper prices continued to fall. Foreign exchange reserves steadily declined. Zambia borrowed. Today it is among the five most indebted third world nations, according to the International Monetary Fund. (By April 1985, Zambia was the eighth most indebted country, after Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Philippines, Uruguay, Yugoslavia, and Peru, and just ahead of Ghana, Malawi, and Sudan.)

Manufacturers of commodities, like pharmaceuticals, often refuse to supply Zambia without immediately receiving cash in return. For that reason, the mines lack essential plant and spare parts, the Ministry of Health cannot ensure steady supplies of vaccine, a soft-drinks monopoly cannot produce for want of caps, and local flour mills have flour but no sacks.

In general, most of the industries developed in the 1960s and 1970s to permit Zambia to become self-sufficient (auto

assembly, tiremaking, and so on) largely depend upon imported parts and raw materials.

In early September, the Minister of Agriculture reported that he was "battling" with the Bank of Zambia to arrange a means of paying for about $4 million worth of fertilizer, which had been shipped from overseas but was held up at ports in South Africa. Likewise, he was upset that the bank was withholding foreign exchange with which to pay for emergency supplies of seed maize. Zambia's farmers sow in November and depend upon seed maize (corn) and fertilizer.

Zambia is in many ways an extreme example of acute national distress in the third world. In addition to its long-term reliance on a single raw material, copper, for about 96 percent of foreign-exchange earnings, and its overwhelming dependence on expensive imported petroleum, it must also import about 50 percent of its staple food. In the colonial period and into the 1960s, Zambia was largely self-sufficient in maize, meat, and milk. But with rising African incomes, neglect of the local farming community, and hostility toward the few but productive white maize, tobacco, and beef farmers, supplies of basic foodstuffs grew less and less sufficient.

Most damagingly, Zambia made the mistake of most new third world governments. Instead of providing realistic economic returns for farmers, the state subsidized consumer costs for urban dwellers.

Because staying at home on the farm made less and less economic sense, and because the state catered to people living in cities, rural dwellers swelled the populations of the cities. By 1980, Zambia had become 60 percent urbanized, one of the most citified sizeable countries in the third world. This increase has put new and expensive pressure on the social services of the urban areas of the country.

During a long period of economic weakness, Zambia has been unable to satisfy the aspirations of its urban and increasingly middle-class population. Unemployment remains high. Housing is short. Food scarcities recur, and the state-owned corporations frequently report an inablility to supply first this and then that basic commodity.

In many ways, Zambia faces a challenging future. Its citizens increasingly demand goods, which must be obtained from other countries. Agriculturally, Zambia could be self-sufficient; but to make the necessary improvements in agriculture--and industrial--productivity, it needs to spend a lot of money. That money for foreign exchange can only be earned through copper exports. When copper prices are low, Zambia has little it can do.

Like a number of third world countries, Zambia's raw materials exports are crucial to its economy. But these exports also contribute to continuing instability in national economies.

Adapted from an article by Professor Robert I. Rotberg, Political Science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Christian Science Monitor, 1 October 1982.

Questions:

1. What countries surround Zambia?
2. Using an encyclopedia, identify Lusaka, Ndola, and Kitwe.
3. Who is the leader of Zambia?
4. On what do many of Zambia's industries depend which makes reliable production possible?
5. List the problems Zambia faces.
6. What explanation does the article give for Zambia's economic instability?
7. What has Zambia done with the income it has earned from copper sales?
8. Zambian cities are growing. Why?
9. How is copper production related to satisfying the needs of people in Zambian cities?
10. Do you think copper helps or hurts Zambia in the long run? Explain.

Discussion

Why are copper prices low?

Responses Sheet **HANDOUT 3C**

1. What countries surround Zambia? (Zaire, Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Angola)

2. Using an encyclopedia, identify Lusaka, Ndola, and Kitwe. (cities, including the capital)

3. Who is the leader of Zambia? (Kenneth Kaunda)

4. On what do many of Zambia's industries depend which makes reliable production impossible? (imported parts and raw materials)

5. List some of the problems Zambia faces. (foreign debt, unemployment, rapidly growing cities, dependence on a single raw material export, low copper prices, lack of spare parts, inadequate housing, food shortages)

6. What explanation does the article give for Zambia's economic instability? (fluctuating copper prices)

7. What has Zambia done with the income it has earned from copper sales? (built roads, schools; increased military funding; created state-owned industries, financial institutions, and service operations)

8. Why are Zambian cities growing? (The government subsidized food prices in the cities. Farmers did not get good prices for their crops so they came to the cities.)

9. How is copper production related to satisfying the needs of people in Zambian cities? (The resource--copper--is valued less highly than in the past, and this reduces Zambia's ability to use the income from the sale of the resources to improve the quality of life--development--of its people.)

10. Do you think copper helps or hurts Zambia in the long run? (Helps: It could help if the economy was diversified to decrease the dependency on copper to earn foreign income. Hurts: It could hurt if it continues to be the dominant export. Fluctuating copper prices make dependency on copper very risky.)

Why are copper prices low?

(a) Other producers are adding to the supply, decreasing the price.
(b) The recession has decreased demand for copper in housing and cars.
(c) Copper is being replaced by other materials, such as glass for copper wire in the telecommunications industry.

Lesson 4

RESOURCES FOR SELF-RELIANCE

Objectives:

- To define self-reliance as it relates to development and distinguish between self-reliance and self-sufficiency.
- To experience first-hand multiple perspectives through a small group simulation.
- To develop decision making skills, by simulating decisions being made by African countries.

Materials: Lagos Plan of Action sheet, Introduction to Three Trade-Related Issues.

Procedure:

1. Ask how many students have jobs. Ask how many students receive an allowance. Ask the students who receive an allowance what they would do if they stopped receiving it. Show students that those who receive an allowance depend upon someone else for their spending money. This is like a country's reliance on foreign aid. Those who work for themselves depend upon themselves. These students who work and earn an income are self-reliant.

2. Tell the students that the concept of self-reliance is very important for countries. It means that countries do not depend on other countries. They decide themselves what they will do. It does not mean that they are self-sufficient.

   A self-sufficient country depends only on its own resources. If no other countries existed, it would make no difference. A self-reliant country trades with other countries, and therefore is not self-sufficient. Self-reliance means that the resources that are available are used to take care of the local population and the surplus is used to acquire what is not available locally. The United States is self-reliant but not self-sufficient. Discuss this distinction with students.

3. For a study of self-reliance as a goal of African development, distribute "The Lagos Plan of Action Guidelines" (Handout 4A).

4. Discuss these guidelines with reference to Zambia and the article students read in Lesson #3.

5. Distribute the "Introduction to Three Trade-Related Issues" sheet (Handout 4B). Discuss these issues. Further examples and study may be necessary. For current trade issues we refer you to the following periodicals: Africa Report and Africa News (see bibliography). For the economics concepts see the economics textbooks listed in the bibliography.

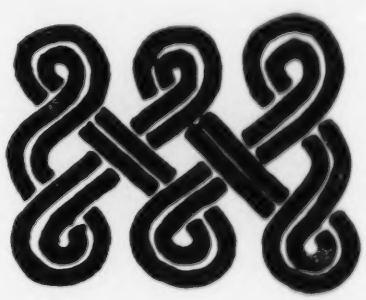
6. Divide students into groups and distribute "Situations" (Handout 4C).

7. Each group selects one situation (Handout 4C) and works out a complete response, which will be reported to the class. Each group lists the ideas that are raised in the discussion. This activity will take longer, especially if students are asking questions about the situations. The questions could be assigned as homework and the discussion continued to allow students to pursue their interests.

8. Choose one or both of the follow-up activities:

   A) Students will, hopefully, come to different conclusions as to how to implement the Lagos Plan of Action. Bring these ideas together in the forum of a debate or mock meeting of the Organization of African Unity.

   B) Collect information on countries that have similar circumstances in order to find out how they are responding to these questions, e.g., South Africa, Zimbabwe, Botswana for (I); any for (II), especially Tanzania, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Mozambique for contrast; Mali, Niger, Chad, Malawi, Uganda for (III).



HANDOUT 4A

LAGOS PLAN OF ACTION GUIDELINES
(partial)

1. Africa's huge resources must be applied principally to meet the needs and purposes of its people;

2. Africa's almost total reliance on the export of raw materials must change. Rather Africa's development and growth must be based on a combination of Africa's considerable natural resources, its entrepreneurial, managerial and technical resources and its markets (restructured and expanded), to serve its people. Africa, therefore, must map out its own strategy for development and must vigorously pursue its implementation;

3. Africa must cultivate the virtue of self-reliance. This is not to say that the continent should cut itself off totally from outside contributions. However, these outside contributions should only supplement our own efforts; they should not be the mainstay of our development;

4. As a consequence of the need for increased self-reliance, Africa must mobilize its entire human and material resources for its development;

5. Each of our states must pursue all-embracing economic, social and cultural activities which will mobilize the strength of the country as a whole and ensure that both the efforts put into and the benefits derived from the development are equally shared.

From West Africa, "Introduction to the Plan of Action," 19 May 1980, pp. 870-872.

HANDOUT 4B

INTRODUCTION TO THREE TRADE-RELATED ISSUES

Historically, Africa's resources have interested people from other parts of the world. Until the 17th century, when Europeans involved in the slave trade used brutal methods to gain control, Africans determined the use and trade of their resources. Under colonial rule in the 20th century, Europeans dictated the use of African labor (people), tools, fibers, woods, crops, and minerals.

During the colonial era (late 19th century to 1960), most African economies developed a huge dependency on trade. As colonies, they were, on the one hand, raw materials suppliers and on the other hand, markets for European manufactured goods. Today most African countries have a high trade/GNP ration. This means the value of goods that the country trades is very high relative to the total value of the goods and services it produces (Gross National Product).

The composition of that trade served the interests of powerful traders and government officials in the colonizing countries like France, United Kingdom, Portugal, and Belgium. As a consequence, the composition of the trade that continues today is not to the advantage of African countries. A high percentage of African trade consists of exported raw materials and imported manufactured goods.

Finally, many African countries rely on foreign aid to support their economies. This too, is left over from the colonial era when the colonies were often dependent upon support (aid) from the metropolis.

Until the 1960's, then, non-Africans have been determing how African resources would be used. Still, today, after most African countries have won political liberation, there is much concern about Africa's power to determine how it will develop.

In 1980, the leaders of African nations met in Lagos, Nigeria and drew up some guidelines about development and resource use. By studying these guidelines and trying to apply them, one can begin to understand both the challenge and necessity of economic interdependence.

Study Questions:

1. Why might a high trade/GNP ratio correspond to a weak and vulnerable economy? Should this ratio be reduced? If so, how?

2. What is disadvantageous about exporting a high percentage of raw materials while importing manufactured goods?

3. How could this be changed? Should African countries reduce their dependence on foreign aid? How would they reduce this dependence?

HANDOUT 4C

Situations:

As African leaders believing in the Lagos Plan Guidelines, discuss and respond to one of the following situations:

I. Your country is rich in chromium, a mineral for which there are no buyers within the country. How will you manage this mineral resource, called strategic by the North and for which there is a high demand in the North?

II. As a local school director, you are in the process of determining the philosophy, focus, and program that your school should emphasize. The school is in a rural area in a country that, although once self-sufficient in food, now depends upon imported food to feed its population. You are building the school, not just physically but in all ways. How will you do it?

Describe the curriculum.
What skills will your students learn, and why?
What will your students do at school?
What attitudes do you want your students to have, and how will they develop them?
Do you want the school to become self-sufficient in producing its basic foods?

III. Your landlocked and mineral-poor country has a large river running through it. Along the river plain, the soils are fertile. In the past, the farmers on the river plain have grown cotton, which they have exported as a raw material. Other countries have then spun the cotton and transformed it into fabrics and clothes.

Two changes have taken place recently that demand a new look at your country's development:

(1) Rising fuel prices have made rail, truck, and airplane transport expensive, causing foreign buyers to look elsewhere for cotton;
(2) The world price for cotton has fallen, causing the income of cotton farmers to decrease.

As head of the Ministry of Agriculture, what will you do? How will you encourage farmers to do what you want them to do?

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World Bank Film Library
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For More Information

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Central Office: UNA-USA. 300 East 42nd Street, New York, New York 10017, (212) 697-3232.

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AFRICA PROJECT/SPICE

Curriculum Unit Evaluation Form

Name: Date:

Grade Level: Position:

Title of Unit:

Time Involved: in class:

in teacher preparation:

To assist in making future revisions, the Africa Project invites your comments.

1. What were your objectives in using the unit? Were they met?

2. How did you use the unit in your classroom? Did you omit any parts? If so, which ones and why? Did you add anything? If so, please explain.

3. Which parts of the unit did you find most helpful? Least helpful? Please explain.

4. How did your class react to the unit? Are there any interesting insights or creative ideas that you received from your students and would like to share?